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ABSTRACT

This contrastive analysis comprises the four linguistic levels of phonology, lexicon, syntax, and "culture." The analysis is selective in that only certain major contrasts between the two languages are chosen for discussion. The aspects of the languages that constitute some major problem areas for an average Korean learner of English as a second language (ESL) are discussed. The analysis is pragmatic in that it is designed to be of practical help to the teacher. Actual and potential learning problems are treated. Since the analysis is ESL-specific, it leaves out account of such contrasts as might constitute problem areas for native speakers of English learning Korean as a second language. (Author/JB)

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A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN KOREAN AND ENGLISH FOR ESL TEACHERS

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When the Bilingual Education Project sponsored a workshop for the teachers of Arlington Public Schools in the summer of 1977, the authors participated by giving 'A Comparative Analysis Between English and Korean' (Harold Chu) and 'Bilingual Instructional Strategies (English-Korean)' (Young-Hee Park). We felt that there should be a small booklet of contrastive analysis between the two languages for the benefit of the teachers of English as a Second Language as well as for the bilingual teachers. We received a positive response to this from many of the ESOL teachers who participated in the workshop.

In the writing of this booklet, as well as in the course of our research, we have benefited from the encouragement, assistance, and cooperation of Mr. Ronald Saunders, Director of Bilingual Education Project, Arlington Public Schools. Our deepest appreciation goes to Mr. Saunders who guided us and helped to make this publication possible.

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analysis. He and Mr. Saunders also read the pre-final version of this analysis and made numerous valuable suggestions and comments regarding its contents.

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Arlington, Virginia

May, 1978

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Chapter I. Introduction

In this booklet, we will present a contrastive analysis between Korean and English. The present analysis will be (1) selective, (2) pragmatic, and (3) ESL-specific.

Our contrastive analysis is selective in the sense that only certain major contrasts between the two languages are arbitrarily chosen for discussion. On the basis of their knowledge of the two languages and their experience as ESL teachers to Korean learners, the authors have selected such points as appear to constitute some major problem areas for an average Korean learner of ESL.

Our contrastive analysis is pragmatic in the sense that it is designed to be of practical help to the classroom teacher. Thus we will not concern ourselves with the theoretical niceties of contrastive analysis. We will rather concern ourselves with actual or potential learning or teaching problems that might arise from the contrasts that we have chosen to include in our contrastive analysis.

Our contrastive analysis is relevant specifically to ESL, i.e. ESL-specific, in the sense that it focuses on such contrasts as might pose problems specifically for Korean learners of ESL. As such it leaves out of account

such contrasts as might constitute problem areas for native speakers of English learning Korean as a foreign or second language. In this sense, our contrastive analysis is uni-directional, not bi-directional.

Content-wise, our contrastive analysis will comprise the four linguistic levels of phonology, lexicon, syntax, and 'culture'. The four chapters that follow will deal with English-Korean contrasts on these four levels in the order given here.

About the 'phonetic' symbols that we will be using in transcribing cited Korean words or sounds, we need to attach the following expository notes. Firstly, we will use the superscript h to indicate that the sound in question is aspirated (e.g. p^h, t^h, k^h, ch^h). Secondly, we will use a 'geminate' to indicate a fortis 'glottalized' consonant (e.g. pp, tt, kk, chch). Thirdly, we will use a plain consonant symbol to indicate that the (obstruent) consonant is an unaspirated lenis variety (e.g. p, t, k, ch). Fourthly, we will use 'ae' to indicate the vowel in question is roughly equivalent to the English vowel as in 'bad' or 'bag'.

Chapter II. Phonological Contrasts

We will discuss phonological contrasts between the two languages, especially as they relate to (1) individual sounds (or phonemes), (2) sounds (or phonemes) in sequence, and (3) stress and intonation in that order.

2.1. Individual Sounds

2.1.1 Voiceless vs. Voiced Obstruents. The English consonants, except for nasals and liquids, are called obstruents. The English obstruents come in pairs, where each pair consists of a voiceless obstruent and its voiced counterpart. Thus English has such pairs as p/b, t/d, k/g, ch/j, s/z, etc.

On the other hand, Korean does not have corresponding obstruent pairs. Instead, Korean has triads or triplets of voiceless obstruents, where each triplet consists of a lenis (soft) voiceless obstruent, its aspirated counterpart, and its fortis (hard) 'glottalized' counterpart. Thus Korean has such triplets as p/p^h/pp, t/t^h/tt, k/k^h/kk, and ch/ch^h/chch. The only exception here is the pair s/ss, where there is no aspirated version of the obstruent in question.

We may say that the lenis obstruent in Korean is the closest to the voiced obstruent in English while the aspirated obstruent in Korean is the closest to the voiceless obstruent in English. As an example, let us consider the triplet p/p^h/pp in Korean and the pair p/b in English. Here the Korean p is the closest to the English b while the Korean p^h is the closest to the English p.

As a result, Korean learners often use lenis obstruents in Korean for voiced obstruents in English. Also they often use aspirated obstruents in Korean for voiceless obstruents in English. Thus they often make mistakes by saying 'tik' for 'dig', 'tok' for 'dog', 'kot' for 'god', and so on.

Korean learners tend to automatically transfer aspirated Korean obstruents for voiceless English obstruents. We may note that the English p, t, and k are typically aspirated immediately before a stressed vowel while they are not or very weakly aspirated elsewhere. They are typically unaspirated immediately after 's' as in 'star', 'spin', or 'skin'. This being the situation, the main problem for Korean learners lies in their tendency to aspirate all voiceless stops in English regardless of their position.

Thus they often make mistakes by aspirating their t's, p's, and k's even where they should not be aspirated, for example, even after 's' as in 'speak', 'steam', and 'skate'.

2.1.2 'p' vs. 'f'. English has the 'p/f' distinction while Korean does not. As a consequence, Korean learners often have difficulty in hearing the difference between these two English sounds. Thus they often find it hard to discriminate between 'pine' and 'fine', 'pile' and 'file', 'leap' and 'leaf', 'pat' and 'fat, 'lap' and 'laugh', 'cup' and 'cuff', and so on.

Since Korean does not have 'f' and since 'p^h' happens to be the closest thing that Korean has to the English 'f', Korean learners often use the Korean p^h for the English f. Thus they often say 'pine' for 'fine', 'pile' for 'file', 'pound' for 'found', 'pour' for 'four', 'pin' for 'fin', 'pan' for 'fan', 'leap', for 'leaf', 'pat' for 'fat', 'lap' for 'laugh', 'cup' for 'cuff', 'opt' for 'oft', and so on.

Since they often transfer p^h for the English p also, the p/f contrast is often lost entirely in their English (see 2.1.1).

2.1.3 'b' vs. 'v'. English has the b/v distinction while Korean does not. As a result, Korean learners often have difficulty in hearing the difference between these two English sounds. Thus they often find it hard to discriminate between 'ban' and 'van', 'bow' and 'vow', 'bat' and 'vat', 'bet' and 'vet', 'curb' and 'curve', 'robe' and 'rove', and so on.

Since Korean does not have 'v' and since the Korean p happens to be the closest to the English v, Korean learners often use the Korean p for the English v. Thus they often say 'pow' for 'vow', 'pet' for 'vet', 'rope' for 'rove', and so on.

Since Korean does not have 'b' and since 'p' is the closest thing Korean has to the English b, Korean learners often use the Korean p for the English b. Thus they often say 'pan' for 'ban', 'pack' for 'back', 'prick' for 'brick', 'cap' for 'cab', 'cup' for 'cub', and so on.

Since Korean learners often use the Korean p for both b and v in English, the b/v contrast is often lost in thier English.

2.1.4. 's' vs. 'z'. English has the s/z distinction while Korean does not. However, Korean learners do not

seem to have difficulty hearing the difference between the two sounds probably because one is distinctly voiced while the other is distinctly voiceless.

Since Korean does not have 'z', since the Korean s is pre-empted for the English s, and since 'ch' is the closest thing left to 'z', Korean learners often transfer the Korean ch for the English z. As a result, they often say 'chipper' for 'zipper', 'chest' for 'zest', 'chew' for 'zoo', and so on.

Note here that the Korean ch is often transferred for the English j, too. The result is that Korean learners often make no distinction between 'z' and 'j' in English. In other words, the z/j contrast is often lost in their English.

2.1.5. 'l' vs. 'r'. English has the l/r contrast while Korean does not. The result is that Korean learners often have difficulty in hearing the difference between these two English sounds. Thus they often find it difficult to discriminate 'light' from 'right', 'load' from 'road', 'lead' from 'read', 'lid' from 'rid', 'led' from 'red', 'low' from 'row', 'lay' from 'ray', 'cloud' from 'crowd', and so on.

Since Korean has one sound that is at the same time similar to the English l and r, Korean learners often transfer this in-between sound for both l and r in English. The result is that the l/r distinction is often lost or mixed up in their English.

2.1.6. 'th'. The English th, either voiced or voiceless, is non-existent in Korean. As such, it is often difficult for Korean learners to learn to use.

Since 's' is the closest thing Korean has to the English voiceless th, Korean learners often use the Korean s for the voiceless English th. Thus they often make mistakes by saying 'sin' for 'thin', 'sing' for 'thing', 'sree' for 'three', 'srow' for 'throw', 'sief' for 'thief', and so on.

It is interesting that they also often have difficulty in hearing the difference between 's' and the voiceless 'th' in English. Thus they often find it hard to tell 'sick' from 'thick', 'sin' from 'thin', 'sigh' from 'thigh', and so on.

Since 't' is the closest thing Korean has to the voiced English th, Korean learners often use their t for the voiced English th. Thus they often make mistakes by saying

'tis' for 'this', 'ten' for 'then', 'tem' for 'them', 'tat' for 'that', 'tey' for 'they', and so on.

It is interesting that they also often find it hard to hear the difference between the voiced th and d, which they often identify with the Korean t (see 2.1.1.). Thus they often have difficulty in discriminating between 'den' and 'then', 'does' and 'thus', and so on.

2.1.7. Short vs. Long 'i'. The contrast between the short and long i is lost in some dialects of Korean and is fast disappearing in most dialects of Korean. On the other hand, the contrast between the long and the short i is fairly 'productive' in English, as is attested to by such word pairs as 'beat/bit', 'heat/hit', 'seat/sit', 'eat/it', 'lead/lid', heed/hid', and so on.

Korean learners, in whose dialects of Korean the contrast between the long and short i is lost, find it difficult to hear the difference between the two varieties of i in English. They also find it hard to produce the two varieties of i in English correctly.

Thus they often find it hard to hear the difference between 'beat' and 'bit', 'heat' and 'hit', 'reach' and 'rich', and so on. They also find it hard to correctly

pronounce 'beat' as opposed to 'bit', 'eat' as opposed to 'it', 'read' as opposed to 'rid', and so on.

2.1.8. Short vs. Long 'u'. Like the distinction between the long and short i, the distinction between the long and short u is lost in most dialects of Korean. On the other hand, this distinction is 'well and alive' in English.

As a result, Korean learners often have difficulty in hearing the difference between the short and long u in English. Thus they often find it hard to tell 'Luke' from 'look'. They also often fail to productively discriminate between the long and short u. Thus in their pronunciation of English, no difference is discernible between 'Luke' and 'look', for example.

2.1.9. [e] vs. [ae]. The contrast between 'e' (as in 'met') and 'ae' (as in 'mat') is lost in many of the dialects spoken in South Korea today. Thus Korean learners often find it difficult to hear the difference between these two sounds in English. They also find it hard to productively discriminate between these two sounds when they speak English.

Thus they often have difficulty in telling 'bed' from

'bad', 'set' from 'sat', 'peck' from 'pack', 'bet' from 'bat', 'pet' from 'pat', and so on.

2.1.10. Open and Closed 'o'. English makes the distinction between the open and closed 'o' (i.e. between 'o' as in 'bought' and 'o' as in 'boat'). No comparable distinction is found in Korean. Thus Korean learners often find it hard to hear the difference between the two vowels or to productively discriminate between the two vowels. In other words, they often find it difficult to discriminate, both productively and receptively, between 'coat' and 'caught', 'boat' and 'bought', and so on.

2.2. Sound in Sequence

2.2.1. Consonant Clusters. English abounds in consonant clusters. On the other hand, Korean allows only a few consonant clusters. Korean allows no word-initial consonant clusters while it allows a limited number of clusters word-medially and word-finally. Of the allowed clusters, those that occur word-finally appear to be on the way out.

Thus Korean learners often have difficulty with English consonant clusters, especially when they occur word-initially or word-finally. When they produce a consonant cluster, they often insert a barred i (or ɨ) between the consonants in the cluster. In other words, they tend to use the barred i to 'de-cluster' the cluster. Thus they often say 'sɨtay' for 'stay', 'sɨtɨrike' for 'strike', 'mɨstɨ' for 'mist', and so on.

Note here that this insertion of ɨ here is only natural. This is because the standard (=canonical) syllable in Korean takes the form of (C)V(C) and because the least salient vowel in Korean is ɨ. Note that (C)V(C) here means that a standard Korean syllable consists of an optional initial consonant, an obligatory vowel, and an optional final consonant.

Thus we may say that Korean learners often restructure the English consonant clusters in such a way as to make them conform to standard Korean syllable structure by using the least salient Korean vowel.

2.2.2. 'n' + 'l' Sequence. In Korean, 'n' becomes 'l' when it is followed immediately by an 'l'. Korean learners often transfer this to English. Thus they often mispronounce

'only' as 'olly', 'manly' as 'mally', 'keenly' as 'kelly', and so on. Recall that the Korean l is similar to both l and r in English. This may explain why Korean learners often mispronounce the English 'n + r' sequence as something like 'l + l', i.e. why they often misprounouce 'Henry' as 'Helly', 'weaponry' as 'weapolly', 'green robe' as 'greel lobe', 'cotton robe' as 'cottol lobe', and so on.

2.2.3. 'p/t/k' + 'm/n' Sequence. In Korean, p/p^h/pp, t/t^h/tt, and k/k^h/kk become m, n, and ㅇ respectively, when they are followed immediately by m or n. Korean learners often transfer this nasalization rule to English. Thus they often mispronounce 'Kick Mary' as 'King Mary', 'Take me with you' as 'Tayng me with you', 'Hug me' as 'Hung me', 'I dig music' as 'I ding music', 'Beat Mary' as 'Bean Mary', 'I cut myself' as 'I cun myself', 'He hit me' as 'He hin me', 'He bade me go' as 'He bane me go', 'Keep me company' as 'Keem me company', 'Deep mines' as 'Deem mines', 'Don't rub my hair' as 'Don't rum my hair', 'Rob Mike' as 'Rom Mike', and so on.

2.2.4. 'm/ㅇ' + 'l' Sequence. In Korean, l becomes n when it immediately follows either m or ㅇ. (We may recall

that the Korean l is similar to both the English l and the English r.) Korean learners often apply this nasalization rule when they speak English. Thus they often mispronounce 'Hamlet' as 'Hamnet', 'kingly' as 'kingny', 'home run' as 'home nun', 'long run' as 'long nun', 'King Lear' as 'King Near', 'the same lady' as 'the same nady', and so on.

Sometimes l becomes n immediately after n, that is, in Korean. Thus Korean learners often transfer this to English, which is shown in their mispronunciation of 'only' as 'onny', 'queenly' as 'queenny', 'Henry' as 'Henny', 'weaponry' as 'weaponny', and so on.

2.2.5. 'n' Insertion. In Korean, 'n' is often inserted between two words if the first word ends in p/p^h/pp, t/t^h/tt, k/k^h/kk, m, n, or ㅇ and if the second word begins with i or y. Korean learners often transfer this rule on n-insertion when they speak English. Thus they often mispronounce 'Keep your fingers crossed' as 'Keem nyour fingers crossed', 'Kick your dog' as 'King nyour dog', 'Get your gun' as 'Gen nyour gun', 'Sing your song' as 'Sing nyour song', 'I have become your friend' as 'I have become nyour friend', and so on. Note here that the change of p, k, and t to m, ㅇ , and n respectively is explained in 2.2.3.

2.2.6. 'n/s' + 'i' Sequence. In Korean, n and s become palatalized when they are followed immediately by i. In other words, when followed by i, s becomes 'sh' (as in 'shy') while n becomes the kind of n that we have in the second syllable of such English words as 'onion', 'canyon', 'Bunyan', etc.

Korean learners often transfer this rule of palatalization when they speak English. Thus they often mispronounce 'sin' as 'shin', 'sit' as 'shit', 'sick' as 'shick', 'sip' as 'ship', 'animal' as 'aɲimal', 'many' as 'maɲy', 'any' as 'aɲy', and so on. The symbol ɲ designates the palatalized n such as that we find in the second syllable of 'onion'.

2.2.7. 'w' + 'u' Sequence. The English sequence 'wu' (as in 'woman' or 'would') does not exist in Korean. The simple u (without the preceding w) is the closest thing Korean has to the English sequence in question. Thus Korean learners often transfer this simple u for the English sequence wu. As a result, they often mispronounce 'woman' as 'uman' or 'ooman', 'would' as 'ud' or 'ood', 'wool' as 'ul' or 'ool', 'woo' as 'u' or 'oo', and so on.

Since Korean does not have the wu/u distinction of English, Korean learners often find it hard to hear the

difference between wu and u in English. Thus they often have difficulty in telling 'woos' from 'ooze', 'swoon' from 'soon', and so on.

2.2.8. 'y' + 'i' Sequence. The English sequence 'yi' (as in 'yeast' or 'yield') does not exist in Korean. The simple i (without the preceding y) is the closest thing Korean has to the English yi. Thus Korean learners often transfer this simple i for the English yi. As a result, they often mispronounce 'yeast' as 'east', 'yield' as 'eeld', 'ye' as 'ee', and so on.

Since Korean does not have the yi/i distinction of English, Korean learners often have difficulty in hearing the difference between yi and i. Thus they have trouble telling 'yeast' from 'east', for example.

2.3. Stress and Intonation

2.3.1. Stress. English is a stress-timed language in the sense that the time an English utterance takes depends upon the number of stressed syllables in the utterance in question. Thus the following expressions, despite differences in length, take about the same amount of time to utter.

a. It's Bob.

b. It's Elizabeth.

c. It's Pennsylvania.

d. It's North Carolina.

On the other hand, Korean is a syllable-timed language in the sense that the time that a Korean utterance takes is determined by the number of syllables in the utterance in question. In this respect, Korean is very much like Japanese, Spanish, or Portugese. Thus the following Korean utterances take different amounts of time to utter because they contain different numbers of syllables.

e. Kaja 'Let's go'

f. ppallikaja 'Let's go early'

g. ppallichibirokaja 'Let's go home early'

h. ppallipositt'onirokaja 'Let's go to Boston early'

Note that every syllable in a syllable-timed language is about evenly stressed while only certain syllables are stressed in a stress-timed language. Thus certain syllables in a stress-timed language are unstressed or very weakly stressed.

A consequence of Korean being a syllable-timed language is that Korean learners often transfer their syllable-timing habit to English. Thus they often assign even stress to every syllable in an English utterance. This

gives rise to the singsong-style English often spoken by Korean learners.

2.3.2. Stressed vs. Unstressed Vowels in English. In English, stressed vowels are quite clearly and prominently enunciated while unstressed vowels are blurred or very faintly pronounced. Unstressed vowels in English are typically reduced to the barred i (i.e. ɨ) or schwa.

In contrast, there is no distinction in Korean between stressed and unstressed vowels because every vowel in an utterance receives about the same amount of stress. As a consequence, every vowel in a Korean utterance is uttered rather clearly and prominently.

Because of this native-language background, Korean learners often fail to blur (or reduce to the barred i or schwa) an unstressed vowel when they speak English.

2.3.3. Intonation. Probably because of syllable timing, i.e. because of the fact that every syllable is evenly stressed, Korean intonation is 'monotonous'. In normal speech, there is little or no noteworthy rise and fall in pitch in the middle of a Korean utterance. The only significant rise and fall in pitch comes at the very end

of an utterance. The general rule is that the voice rises at the end of a yes/no question while it falls at the end of a sentence of a different type.

Because of this native-language background, Korean learners often use a monotonous (or singsong) intonation when they speak English. This kind of monotonous intonation may jar on the ears of native speakers of English.

Chapter III. Lexical Contrasts

The lexicon is the most idiosyncratic part of any language. It also comprises more constituent elements than does any other linguistic level. For reasons such as these, languages may be expected to display more contrasts on the lexical level than on any other level. In fact, there are so many lexical contrasts between any two languages that it is extremely difficult or next to impossible to study them exhaustively. Thus the list of lexical contrasts to be given below is bound to be highly fragmentary.

3.1. Korean Words with More than One English Equivalents.

3.1.1. /məkta/ vs. 'eat', 'drink', and 'smoke'. The Korean verb /məkta/ is ordinarily used in the sense of 'eat'. However, many Koreans use this verb in the sense of 'drink' or even in the sense of 'smoke'. For these Koreans, it is perfectly natural to say such things as /kop^{h}iɬɬ+məkta/ 'to eat coffee' or /tampeɬɬ+məkta/ 'to eat a cigarette'.

This may help explain why many Korean learners produce such un-English verb phrases as 'eat wine', 'eat water', 'eat juice', 'eat a coke', 'eat a cigar', 'eat a cigarette', 'eat marijuana', and so on.

3.1.2. /hopak/ vs. 'pumpkin', 'squash', and 'zucchini'. The Korean noun /hopak/ has three English equivalents as shown above. In the light of this, it may not be so surprising that Korean learners often find it hard to distinguish among the three English equivalents.

'Pumpkin' is 'the most common of the three equivalents here'. Thus most Korean learners learn this word before they do the other two words and associate it with the Korean /hopak/. Until and unless they learn the other two words, they are bound to use 'pumpkin' to refer to a squash or a zucchini. This should help explain why many Korean learners refer to a squash or a zucchini as a pumpkin.

3.1.3. /ch^{h}a/ vs. 'car', 'station wagon', 'sedan', 'pick up', 'van', and 'truck.' The Korean noun /ch^{h}a/ has many English equivalents as shown here. Thus Korean learners often find it difficult to distinguish among the many English equivalents of their /ch^{h}a/.

'Car' is the most common of the English equivalents of /ch^{h}a/. Thus Korean learners tend to learn this equivalent before they do the rest of the equivalents, and get to associate it with the Korean /ch^{h}a/. The result is that, until and unless they learn to use the other equivalents here, they are likely to use 'car' to refer to all of the many equivalents of /ch^{h}a/. This should explain why Korean learners often refer to all sorts of vehicles as simply a car.

3.1.4. /t̬itta/ vs. 'hear' and 'listen'. The Korean verb /t̬itta/ has two English equivalents as shown here. Thus Korean learners often have difficulty in discriminating between the two English equivalents of /t̬itta/.

'Hear' is the more common of the two words here so that Korean learners tend to learn it before they do the other word and associate it with the Korean /t̬itta/. Thus until and unless they learn the other word, they are likely to use 'hear' for 'hear' as well as for 'listen'. This should explain why Korean learners tend to say 'I hear the recorded message' and 'I listened to the recorded message' interchangeably, for example.

3.1.5. /pota/ vs. 'see' and 'look'. The Korean verb /pota/ has two English equivalents as shown here. Thus Korean learners often have difficulty in using the two English equivalents here with a proper sense of discrimination.

'See' being the more common of the two equivalents of /pota/, it is likely that Korean learners learn this word before they do the other word and associate it with the Korean /pota/. Thus until and unless they learn to use 'look' as well, they are likely to use 'see' for both 'see' as well as for 'look'. This should explain why Korean learners are sometimes heard to say 'You saw her' when what they really want to say is 'You looked at her', for example.

3.1.6. /ch^{h}achta/ vs. 'find' and 'look for'. The Korean verb /ch^{h}achta/ has two English equivalents as shown here. Thus Korean learners often have difficulty in discriminating between the two English equivalents in question.

'Find' is the more common of the two words here so that Korean learners tend to learn it before they do the other word and associate it with the Korean /ch^{h}achta/.

Thus until and unless they learn to use 'look for' as well, they are likely to use 'find' for both 'find' and 'look for'. This should explain why Korean learners sometimes say 'They found John' when what they really mean to say is 'They looked for John', for example.

3.1.7. /ppalli/ vs. 'early' and 'quickly'. The Korean adverb /ppalli/ has two English equivalents as shown here. Thus Korean learners often find it hard to discriminate between the two English equivalents. This should explain why they often use 'early' for 'quickly/fast' and vice versa.

3.1.8. /ttuita/ vs. 'jump', 'skip', 'hop', and 'leap'. The Korean verb /ttuita/ has many equivalents as shown here. Thus Korean learners often have difficulty in discriminating between the various English equivalents of /ttuita/.

Since 'jump', is the most common of the English equivalents here, Korean learners are likely to learn it before they do the other equivalents and associate it with the Korean /ttuita/. Thus until and unless they learn the other equivalents as well, they are likely to use 'jump' for the other equivalents as well. This should help

explain the tendency among Korean learners to use 'jump' for all the English equivalents of /ttuita/.

3.2. English Words with More than One Korean Equivalents.

3.2.1. 'put on' vs. /ipta/, /sinta/, /kkita/, ssita/, /ch^{h}ata/. The English verb 'put on' or 'wear' (as in 'Put on your coat' or 'Wear your shoes') has five Korean equivalents as shown here. In Korean, which of the five verbs is chosen depends on the referent of the object noun that follows the verb. Korean learners must get used to the fact that English uses one and only one verb 'put on' (or 'wear') regardless of the referent of the object noun that follows the verb in question.

3.2.2. 'wash' vs. /ppalta/, /ssissta/, and /takkta/. The English verb 'wash' has three Korean equivalents as shown here. Which of the three Korean equivalents is used depends on the referent of the object noun that follows the verb. Korean learners must get accustomed to the fact that English uses one and only one verb regardless of the referent of the object noun in question.

3.2.3. 'wall' vs. /tam/ and /piək/. The English noun 'wall' has two Korean equivalents as shown here. /piək/ refers to the wall of a room or a hall while /tam/ refers to a different type of wall. Korean learners must get used to the fact that English does not make this distinction between different types of walls.

3.2.4. 'brother' vs. /to ㅎ sae ㅎ/ and /hi ə ㅎ/. The English word 'brother' has two Korean equivalents as shown here. /to ㅎ sae ㅎ/ is used to refer to a younger brother while /hi ə ㅎ/ is used to refer to an elder brother. Korean learners must get used to the fact that English does not make this distinction lexically although it does make the distinction phrasally, i.e. 'younger brother' vs. 'elder brother'.

3.2.5. 'brother-in-law' vs. /ch^{h}ənam/, /to ㅎ sə/, /maehi ə ㅎ/, /maeche/, /hi ə ㅎ pu/, and /chena ㅎ/. The English word 'brother-in-law' has many Korean equivalents as shown here. /ch^{h}ənam/ refers to one's wife's brother; /to ㅎ sə/ refers to one's wife's sister's husband; /maehi ə ㅎ/ refers to one's elder sister's husband, where one is male; /maeche/ refers to one's younger sister's husband, where

one is male; /hiɔɧpu/ refers to one's elder sister's husband, where one is female; /chenaɧ/ refers to one's younger sister's husband, where one is female.

Korean learners must get used to the fact that English does not make this kind of distinction at all at least lexically. Every other 'in-law' word in English has more than one equivalent in Korean. In that sense, every other 'in-law' word poses a potential learning problem for Korean learners.

3.3. Korean Words with Polysemic English Equivalents. Here we will be dealing with instances, where one Korean word has an English equivalent with more than one meaning, only one of which is the same as the meaning of the Korean word in question.

3.3.1. /saɧcha/ vs. 'box'. The Korean word /saɧcha/ has the meaning of a box as a container. On the other hand, the English word 'box' may mean not only a container but also a theater compartment, an embarrassing or perplexing situation, or the like.

Korean learners tend to find it easier to learn to use the English 'box' in its sense as a container than in its

other senses. The reason for this may be that (1) the sense of 'box' as a container is closest to the meaning of the Korean /sa차 cha/ and (2) this sense of 'box' is the most common of its many senses.

3.3.2. /pa방/ vs. 'room'. The Korean word /pa방/ has the meaning of a room as in 'This is my bedroom'. On the other hand, the English word 'room' means not only a room as part of a house but also room as scope or space (as in 'There is room for improvement').

Korean learners tend to find it easier to use 'room' in its sense as a part of a house than in its other senses. The reason for this may be that (1) this sense of 'room' is closest to the meaning of the Korean /pa방/ and (2) this is the commonest sense of 'room'.

3.3.3. /son/ vs. 'hand'. The Korean word /son/ has the meaning of a hand as the part of the human arm beyond the wrist. On the other hand, the English word 'hand' means not just the part of the human arm beyond the wrist but also a pointer on the dial of a watch, a person who does something, or the like.

Korean learners tend to find it easier to use 'hand'

in the sense of the part of the human arm beyond the wrist than in its other senses. The reason for this may be that (1) this sense is closest to the meaning of the Korean word /son/ and (2) this sense is the most common of the many senses of 'hand'.

3.3.4. /hakkio/ vs. 'school'. The Korean word /hakkio/ has the meaning of a school as a place of learning. On the other hand, the English word 'school' refers not just to a place of learning but also a group of fish, a group of scholars who follow a certain leader, or the like.

Korean learners tend to find it easier to use 'school' in the sense of a place of learning than in its other senses. The reason for this may be that (1) this sense is closest to the meaning of the Korean word /hakkio/ and (2) this sense is the most common of the many senses of 'school'.

Chapter IV. Syntactic Contrasts

In this chapter, we will discuss a number of salient syntactic contrasts between the two languages.

4.1. Expletive 'It' and 'There'. The English language frequently uses the so-called expletives 'It' and 'There' while Korean does not. Thus Korean learners tend to find it rather difficult to learn to use expressions that contain one of these expletives. Thus they have difficulty in learning to use such expressions as the following.

a. I like <u>it</u> here.

b. <u>It</u> was cold last winter.

c. <u>It</u> is important that I pass this test.

d. <u>It</u> is kind of you to come.

e. He made <u>it</u> clear that he would come.

f. <u>It</u>'s cold enough for <u>there</u> to be ice on the window.

g. <u>There</u> was not a single book in his room.

4.2. 'Yes/No' to Negative Questions. In response to English negative questions such as 'are you not hungry?' we say NO when we want to answer it in the negative while we say YES when we want to answer it in the affirmative.

On the other hand, in response to negative question in Korean, we say YES when want to answer it in the negative while we say NO when we want to answer it in the affirmative. That is, YES in Korean means 'No, I am not hungry,' and NO means 'Yes, I am hungry.'

Yes and No are used to mean 'What you've said is correct' and 'What you've said is incorrect'. So if you state a question in a negative way, the Korean answer turns out to be opposite of English YES and NO, which affirm or deny the FACT rather than the STATEMENT of the facts.

Let us take the Korean question/ankassɨpnikka/ 'Did you not go?' as an example. A Korean will say /ye ankassɨpnita/ 'Yes, I did not go' if he wants to answer the question negatively; he will say /anio kassipnita/ 'No, I went' if he wants to answer the same question affirmatively.

Korean learners often transfer this Korean habit of responding to negative question when they speak Egnlish. Thus they often use YES and NO the wrong way when they answer negative questions in English. For example, the negative question 'Didn't you do it?' is likely to elicit either 'Yes (, I didn't do it)' or 'No (, I did it)'.

4.3. The Construction 'Verb + Adjectival Complement' or 'Verb + Object + Adjectival Complement'. Many English

verbs take adjectival complements. Among such verbs are 'feel' (as in 'I feel happy'), 'appear' (as in 'She appears (to be) happy'), 'seem' (as in 'She seems (to be) happy'), 'look' (as in 'She looks happy'), 'smell' (as in 'It smells good'), 'sound' (as in 'It sounds good'), and 'taste' (as in 'It tastes good').

Many English verbs take an object followed by an adjectival complement. Among such verbs are 'consider' (as in 'I consider him (to be) great'), 'think' (as in 'I think him (to be) good'), 'regard' (as in 'I regard him as good'), 'make' (as in 'I made them bigger'), 'render' (as in 'This will render him powerless'), etc.

With such verbs as we have mentioned above, Korean also uses complements. However, Korean uses 'adverbial' complements, rather than adjectival complements. Thus 'I feel happy' would come out in Korean as something like 'I feel happily'.

This should explain why Korean learners often make mistakes by using adverbial (instead of adjectival) complements for the English verbs of the kind we have been discussing here. For illustration, let us consider the following sentences.

a. It tastes nice.

b. It smells nice.

c. It looks nice.

d. It sounds nice.

e. It appears (to be) nice.

f. It seems (to be) nice.

g. Make him happy.

h. Render him powerless.

i. It causes me to be happy.

j. I regard him as honest.

k. I consider him (to be) honest.

l. I deem it important.

Korean learners often render these sentences wrongly as follows.

a'. It tastes nicely.

b'. It smells nicely.

c'. It looks nicely.

d'. It sounds nicely.

e'. It appears nicely.

f'. It seems nicely.

g'. Make him happily.

h'. Render him powerlessly.

i'. It causes me to be happily.

j'. I regard him as honestly.

k'. I consider him honestly.

l'. I deem it importantly.

4.4. Countable vs. Uncountable Nouns. English makes the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns. On the other hand, Korean does not make a similar distinction. Grammatically, every Korean noun may be used as a countable noun.

This may help explain why Korean learners often have trouble using uncountable nouns or making the required distinction between countable and uncoutable nouns in English. This may also help explain why Korean learners often countize uncountable English nouns such as 'news', 'information', 'evidence', 'testimony', and 'intelligence'. Korean learners often countize uncountable English nouns and say such grotesque things as 'many news', 'one evidence', 'a few testimonies', 'several informations', 'an information', 'intelligences', or the like.

English often uses one and the same noun sometimes countable and sometimes uncountably. For example, 'pine' is countable when it refers to a tree or trees while it is uncountable when it refers to the wood that is obtained from the tree that goes by that name.

Korean learners quite frequently fail to make this distinction between the countable use and the uncountable use of one and the same noun in English. Thus they often fail to see the difference in meaning between the two uses of such nouns as the following, for example.

Nouns	Countable Use	Uncountable Use
dog	an animal	meat from the animal
chicken	a fowl	meat from the fowl
lamb	an animal	meat from the animal
turkey	a fowl	meat from the fowl
oak	a tree	wood from the tree
pine	a tree	wood from the tree
birch	a tree	wood from the tree
cherry	a tree	wood from the tree

It may be noted here that Korean learners often countize such nouns as these when they should be used uncountably. Thus they often say 'I had a chicken for breakfast' instead of 'I had chicken for breakfast'.

4.5. Predicative vs. Attributive Adjectives. According to the postion where it occurs, an adjective may be predicative, attributive, or both. If an adjective may occur only as a verbal complement, then it is predicative. If

an adjective may occur as a pre-nominal modifier only, then it is attributive. If an adjective may occur in either position, then it is both predicative and attributive.

All Korean adjectives may be used either attributively or predicatively. On the other hand, we may think of English adjectives as breaking down into the following three types. Firstly, some English adjectives are used only predicatively. 'Afraid' is a case in point. We may say 'I saw a boy who was afraid', but we may not say 'I saw an afraid boy'. Secondly, some English adjectives may be used only attributively. 'Main' is a case in point. We may say 'This is the main reason', but not 'This is the reason that is main'. Thirdly and finally, most English adjectives may be used either attributively or predicatively. 'Sick' is a case in point. We may say either 'I know a man who is sick', or 'I know a sick man'.

We may note here that the first two types of English adjectives do not have their counterpart in Korean while the third type does. Thus we may say that the first two types, but not the third, pose potential learning problems for Korean learners.

Korean learners may use predicative-only English adjectives attributively. That is, they may produce such

weird phrases as 'aflame house', 'ablaze mountains', 'adrift boats', or the like.

Korean learners may use attributive-only English adjectives predicatively. That is, they may produce such weird sentences as 'This reason is main', 'The problem is major', 'The president is former', 'The administration is previous', or the like.

4.6. The Definite and Indefinite Articles. In most of their uses, the English articles ('the', 'a', and 'an') do not have their counterparts in Korean. Thus Korean learners often find it extremely difficult to learn to use the English article correctly. They often either mix up one article with another or leave out an article where they should use one.

Below we will cite a few examples, where Korean learners often commit the 'sin' of omission by failing to use an article where it should be used.

4.6.1. 'the' in a Set Name. When a set consists of more than one member such that a member may be called X, the set is often referred to in English as 'the Xs'. Thus we have 'the Rocky Mountains', 'the Rockies', 'the

Philippine Islands', 'the Philippines', 'the Three Rs', 'the R months', 'the Carolinas', 'the Americas', 'the Carters', and so on. Korean learners often drop the 'the' in such set names as these (often along with the plural-marking -s).

4.6.2. 'Korean' vs. 'the Korean Language'. An English proper noun may often be rewritten as 'the + proper adjective + common noun'. Thus 'Korean', 'Christianity', 'France', and 'Rome' may be rewritten as 'the Korean language', 'the Christian Faith', 'the French Republic', and 'the Roman Empire' respectively. Korean learners often leave out the 'the' in the construction under discussion, i.e. the construction of 'the + proper adjective + common noun'.

4.6.3. 'Ten dollars' vs. 'An even ten dollars'. When an English noun phrase takes the form of 'adjective + plural numeral + plural noun', it is preceded by an article, either definite or indefinite, as the case may be. Thus we may have such English noun phrases as 'an even ten dollars', 'a whopping five billion dollars', 'the usual 100%', 'the customary two dollars', 'the required 85%', and so on. Korean

learners often commit the error of omitting the article from noun phrases of the sort under discussion.

4.6.4. 'the' in Proper Names. Certain proper names such as names of rivers or hotels are frequently preceded by the definite article ('the') in English. Thus we have such proper names as 'the Potomac', 'the Potomac River', 'the Nile', 'the Nile River', 'the Sheraton', 'the Sheraton Hotel', 'the Imperial Hotel', etc. Korean learners often commit the error of omitting the definite article from such proper names as these.

4.6.5. 'the + adjective'. In English 'the + adjective' is frequently used as a noun phrase that refers to either a set or group of certain things or a certain quality. Thus 'the beautiful' may be used as a noun phrase that refers, depending on context, to either a set of beautiful persons or the quality of being beautiful (i.e. beauty). Korean learners often find it hard to learn to use this type of noun-phrase construction in English. They also seem to find it hard to assign the correct meaning to a construction of this type.

4.7. Relative Pronouns. Relative pronouns and relative clauses of English do not have their equivalents in Korean. Korean lacks relative pronouns. Relative clauses precede their head nouns directly, without being preceded or followed by relative pronouns or conjunctions. For example, /melika ssin phəncinin cemiiʦa/ is rendered 'Mary writes letters interesting is' in Korean for 'Letters that Mary writes are interesting' in English. As a consequence, Korean learners often experience difficulty in learning to use relative pronouns and relative clauses of English.

4.8. Gender. English makes the distinction between masculine and femine gender in its third-person singular pronouns. To be more precise, English also uses neuter gender here. Thus 'she' and 'her' are feminine, 'it' and its' are neuter, and 'he', 'him' and 'his' are masculine. On the other hand, Korean does not make a similar distinction of gender.

Thus the gender distinction in the third-person singular pronouns of English often poses something of a problem for Korean learners. In many instances, they mix up a masculine pronoun with a feminine pronoun. They often use masculine pronouns when they should use feminine pronouns. This is

perhaps attributable to the fact that masculine pronouns are more commonly used or more dominant than their feminine counterparts.

4.9. Number Agreement between Subject and Verb. In English, the subject of a sentence must agree in number with the main verb of the sentence. In Korean, however, a similar agreement does not seem to be operative although the subject of a sentence has to agree in number with the subjective complement if the subjective complement is a noun. This may explain why the phenomenon of number agreement between subject and verb in English is often a problem for Korean learners.

4.10. Pre-Modification vs. Post-Modification. The modifier of a noun in English may either precede or follow the noun that it modifies. Thus we may have either 'a valuable book' or 'a book of value'. In Korean, on the other hand, a noun modifier must precede the noun that it modifies. Thus 'a valuable book' has its equivalent in Korean while 'a book of value' does not.

This suggests that Korean learners may find English post-modification something of a problem. In other words,

'a book of value' or 'a book which is valuable' may be rather difficult for Korean learners while 'a valuable book' should not be too difficult for them.

It may be noted at this point that English sometimes requires post-modification, not allowing pre-modification. For example, this is the case when an adjective (phrase) modifies such 'indefinite' pronouns as 'something', 'somebody', 'someone', 'nothing', 'nobody', 'no one', 'anything', 'anybody', 'anyone', 'everything', 'everybody', 'everyone', etc. Korean learners often make mistakes by using pre-modification, understandably enough, even in these cases where only post-modification is allowed. In other words, they often produce ungrammatical English strings such as 'good something' (instead of 'something good'), 'important something' (instead of 'something important').

4.11. Subject-Verb Inversion. Subject-Verb inversion often occurs in English when a statement is turned into a question. For example, subject and verb change places when we transform 'Professor Jones will teach somebody' into either 'Who will Professor Jones teach?' or 'Will Professor Jones teach somebody?'

On the other hand, this phenomenon of subject-verb inversion is not found in Korean. This may help explain

why Korean learners often fail to follow the English rule of subject-verb inversion, producing such un-English sentences as 'Who Professor Jones will teach?' (instead of the grammatical 'Who will Professor Jones teach?'), for example.

4.12. Irregular Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives, and Adverbs. Many English verbs are irregular in that their past-tense/past participle forms are formed irregularly. Many English nouns are irregular in that their plural forms are formed irregularly. Many adjectives and adverbs are irregular in that their comparative and superlative forms are formed irregularly.

On the other hand, Korean verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs are by and large regular. Thus the irregular verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs of English do not have their counterparts in Korean.

This, coupled with the general human tendency to regularize what is irregular, may explain why Korean learners often make mistakes by regularizing irregular English forms. Korean learners often produce such un-English forms as 'goed' (instead of the correct 'went' or 'gone'), 'gooses' (instead of the correct 'geese'), 'gooder'

or 'more good' (instead of the correct 'better'), or 'iller' (instead of the correct 'worse').

Chapter V. Cultural Contrasts

In what follows, we will concern ourselves with some reflexes of cultural traits as they relate to our current discussion.

5.1. Essen Kultur. Korean culture may be called an essen kultur in the sense that it places particular value and emphasis on food and eating. This appears to be reflected in the Korean language in a number of rather interesting ways.

A case in point is provided by one of the most commonly used Korean greetings. This greeting may be translated into English as something like 'Have you eaten your meal yet?', where 'your meal' may be replaced by '(your) breakfast', '(your) lunch', or '(your) dinner', depending on the hour of the day.

Korean learners often commit 'social blunders' of sorts by transferring this 'food-oriented' greeting to English. They often say 'Have you eaten (your) breakfast?' for 'Good morning', 'Have you eaten (your) lunch?' for 'Good day', 'Have you eaten (your) dinner?' for 'Good evening', or the like.

5.2. Humility and Modesty. Korean culture attaches particular importance and significance to humility and modesty as an integral part of a well-bred person's character or personality. This attitude is often reflected in the Korean language.

Firstly, when someone congratulates a Korean on something, he is supposed to show humility or modesty by saying something like 'I am ashamed' or 'Not at all' or both. Korean learners may often transfer this expression of humility and modesty to English. Thus when you say to him something like 'You have a beautiful tie on', he is likely to respond by saying 'I am ashamed', 'Not at all', or the like.

Secondly, Koreans generally consider it to be against their code of humility and modesty to boast of their own things or achievements. A Korean scholar is supposed to refer to his own publication as 'my poor publication'. A Korean is supposed to refer to himself as 'this unworthy person', to his own house as 'my not-so-clean place', and so on.

Also a Korean host, when he and his guest are about to begin a meal, often says to his guest that he has prepared an inadequate meal but that he would appreciate his

(the guest's) eating his fill. This apparent contradiction in terms is only a social protocol. Koreans may transfer this linguistic reflex of their code of humility and modesty to English when they have invited an Anglo-American to dinner at their house.

We may also cite the Korean proverb that says 'He is a fool who boasts of his own child or his own wife.' This proverb may be said to be an interesting reflex of the code of humility and modesty.

Thirdly, Koreans consider it to be against their code of humility and modesty to be loquacious or talk in public without being called upon. Thus Korean learners may often appear to have only a minimal interest in taking an active part in a classroom discussion or express themselves publicly unless they are explicitly and strongly urged or required to do so.

5.3. First-Naming. Koreans do not call someone by his or her first name unless he or she is clearly 'inferior' in terms of either age or rank or unless he or she is their really close friend. On the other hand, Americans use first names quite frequently, much more frequently than do Koreans.

On the basis of this contrast, we may predict that Korean learners may find it hard to call somebody by his or her first name unless he or she is their really close friend or he or she is clearly 'inferior' to them either age-wise or rank-wise. Thus getting Korean learners to use first names as Anglo-Americans do may be something of a problem for their English teachers.

5.4. Protocol. Every language seems to have specific set expressions used in specific situations. These expressions may be called protocol expressions. To take an example from English, one is supposed to say 'Best wishes' to a newly-wed bride and 'Congratulations' to a newly-wed groom. To take a further English example, one is supposed to say 'Gesundheit' or 'God bless you' when somebody has just coughed or sneezed.

Korean and English differ quite drastically in such protocol expressions. Thus we may predict that Korean learners will encounter difficulty in learning to use proper English protocol expressions. For one thing, they will find it difficult to learn to say 'Gesundheit' or 'God bless you' properly.

5.5. Idioms. Most idioms result from an interplay between the language in question and the culture in which that language is embedded. English and Korean are apparently embedded in two entirely different cultures. As a consequence, the two languages apparently have developed a set of idiomatic expressions idiosyncratic to each.

Now we may note that one has to be familiar with not just the language but also the culture if one is to understand idioms correctly. Thus we may infer that English idioms should be more difficult for Korean learners than non-idiomatic English expressions. In other words, such idioms as 'take the fifth', 'common-law wife', 'an apple polisher', etc. should be more difficult for Korean learners than their non-idiomatic paraphrases.

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